# THE FARMERS' CABINET,

DEVOTED TO AGRICULTURE, HORTICULTURE AND RURAL ECONOMY.

Vol. II.—No. 6.] Philadelphia, October 17, 1837. [Whole No. 30.


To the Editor of the Farmers' Cabinet.

## Lime.

Having been requested by you to give some views of Lime as applied to Agriculture, I have refrained from so doing, until time has been afforded for a degree of personal observation. In Agriculture, especially, theory, however plausible, should be advanced with diffidence, and submitted as soon as convenient to the touchstone of Roger Bacon—*experiment*.

The limestone of Whitemarsh, Montgomery county, Pennsylvania, my place of residence, is primitive, and remarkable for the purity of the lime produced from it. Fifty bushels, kiln measure, to the acre, are considered sufficient for our strong valley land, under a succession of crops for six years. The application is frequently made after the lime has been exposed in large heaps, to the action of the elements for many months. In regard to the most judicious method for the introduction of lime to the soil, opinions vary; but almost all agree that every crop, is materially benefitted by any of the usual modes of spreading.

The effect of lime in decomposing vegetable matter is well known.

Near the last of 8th mo. (August,) fifty bushels of lime to the acre were spread over a clover field almost run out, from which a first crop of grass had been taken at the usual time. The second crop grew tolerably well, and was ploughed down with the lime, preparatory to seeding with winter grain. At the interval of four to five weeks the ground was cross ploughed, and the vegetable mass of grass, weeds and roots, found to be almost pulverized, and incorporated with the soil.

It is customary with many farmers in this vicinity, to apply a handful of ground plaster to each hill of Indian corn, after it appears a few inches above ground. A small portion of a corn field thus treated, was last spring reserved for an experiment, with the same quantity of powdered or fine lime, applied in like manner.

The result has been in favor of the lime, both the stalk and ear of the corn, being much superior to the average production of the field. Your friend,

Morris Longstreth.

Valley Green, 10 mo. 2nd, 1837.

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For the Farmers' Cabinet.

## OBSERVER, No. XII.

If I rightly understand the design of the Farmers' Cabinet, it is to open a channel of communication between agriculturists—to record and publish facts and observations—and to facilitate an interchange of opinion among them. But facts so published, may have been too hastily observed, some of the attending circumstances may have escaped notice, rendering the inferences to be drawn from them liable to error, and giving rise to incorrect opinions. Too implicit reliance on such facts, and inferences, and opinions, would necessarily lead astray. Hence, it becomes our proper business—yea, an imposed duty—to examine them for ourselves, let the authority from whence they come be what it may, for all men are liable to err in these particulars. Indeed, the higher the authority from whence an opinion emanates, the more imperative will be the duty to examine it, because, if erroneous, that authority renders it more dangerous. For like reasons, opinions which involve the most important consequences, should be adopted with the greatest caution.

These reflections were occasoned by reading an interesting paper, in the 25th number of the Cabinet, by William Partridge, recommending the use of ground limestone instead of lime, as a manure.

The theory on which the recommendation rests is simply this, that lime applied to land, must first be converted back to its former state (carbonate of lime or limestone,) before it can promote vegetation. Assuming the truth of this theory, he draws the inference, that it would be "a far better general application, that the limestone be merely ground, and in that state, applied to the land." He, however, says, "there are some exceptions to this rule. When a soil contains hard roots, dry fibres, or other inert vegetable matter, a strong decomposing action will take place between burned lime and the vegetable matter, rendering that which was before comparatively inert, nutritious." Now I would suggest, whether the writer may not, by an unhappy transposition, have put the rule for the exception, and the exception for the rule. There are, probably, few soils which do not contain "comparatively inert vegetable matter." Those which do not, I would consider desperately bad and hopelessly irreclaimable by lime in any form, without the aid of vegetable manure. The great difference between soil and subsoil appears to be, that the former contains more vegetable matter than the latter.

"For stiff heavy soils, he advises to use the limestone coarsely powdered, for in this state it would so lighten them, as to enable the sun and air to penetrate to their vegetation, thereby rendering the future crops more productive." This will readily be allowed, but the effect would seem to be purely of a mechanical nature, and would be effected, perhaps, as well by the use of silicious sand as that of limestone. I have had some experience and opportunities for considerable observation in this matter, and my opinion is, that the principal, if not the entire effect produced by limestone in the form of sand, depends on its rendering the soil lighter. In the section of country where I have resided, it *unfortunately* happens, that much of the limestone rock is already disintegrated, or in the form of *limestone sand*. This has to be removed in order to obtain the hard limestone, which lies underneath. In doing which, it is frequently deposited in large quantities, on the adjacent fields, affording an admirable opportunity of testing the value of coarse ground limestone as a manure. On "stiff heavy soils," it is certainly found to be beneficial as any other sand or gravel would be; but after having assisted in applying some hundreds of loads in this way, I am free to declare, that I never could perceive any other effect from it, except in one instance. A few loads of the sands were carelessly spread on a lot prepared for buckwheat, the growth of which was rendered much more vigorous on the parts where the sand had been applied. No effect was observable in succeeding crops.

If pulverized limestone does possess the value attributed to it, it is quite time the fact should be known. Thousands of loads of it could be obtained in my neighborhood, with the thanks of the owner for taking it away.

The theoretical opinion, that lime must first be restored to the state of a carbonate, when mixed with the soil, and that its "fertilizing property depends (as in plaster,) mainly, if not altogether, on its power to attract moisture during the night, and to impart it gradually to the plants during the day," is not yet sufficiently proved. I am not aware that limestone sand possesses any greater attraction for water, than silicious or other sands. But admit the fact, and how does it operate? Does its attraction cease during the day, to allow it to impart the water to the plants? If it does not, the plants would realise little benefit from its "hydratic property." Admit this also, and from whence does it derive the water during the night? Being buried in the soil it can only derive it from the soil at night, to return it again during the day. The benefit would, therefore, seem to be more fanciful than real.

Theory may assist us to devise, and science may enable us to execute experiments more successfully, but until we ascertain the laws which regulate the nutrition and growth of plants, we must rely, mainly, upon the data which experience affords, to lead us to safe and positive conclusions. As yet, we know too little of what constitutes the food of plants—of their power of converting it into nourishment—and of the combinations of which they are capable of forming. We know too little of the manner in which manures operate, whether nutricious or stimulant; and of the modifying influence of soils, seasons and climates, to trust to any theory which does not rest on experience. Agriculture requires more *facts* to place it on the sure foundation of a rational and inductive science.

The facts given by Partridge do not appear sufficient to sustain his position—or "to rectify a material error, committed by farmers in using burned lime, instead of ground limestone, on their land." He says, "it is well known to every intelligent agriculturist, that soils covering limestone rocks, are the most productive of any on the globe." Were we to admit this sweeping declaration, to the full extent of its literal import, it would not prove

the point at issue; for it does not follow as a consequence, that soils partake of the nature of their subjacent rocks. Geology teaches that our planet is composed of numerous strata of rocks, which, by some disturbing force, have been broken up and displaced, while some of these strata were elevated into hills and mountains, others were depressed into valleys. The chemical agencies of heat and water have gradually decomposed, and disintegrated the surface of these rocky strata, producing the soil which covers them. But the water necessarily carried vast quantities of this earthly material from the hills, and deposited it in the valleys. The soil in our valleys, is therefore more commonly composed of the debris of the neighboring hills, than of the rock which it covers. This important circumstance has been left out of the account.

Again, we are told of the "beneficial effects" of irrigation on the hills bordering the valley between Bristol and Worcester, in England; which is attributed to the limestone, held in solution by the water. But it is well known that the purest water even the chrystal drops as they distil from the clouds of Heaven, produce the most *beneficial effects* and especially so when applied to the "higher land." A comparative trial with pure and with calcareous water, on the same soil and under similar circumstances, might not justify the inference which he has drawn.

A due admixture of calcareous earth, is probably advantageous to every soil, and necessary to healthful and vigorous vegetation, but I do not yet perceive the "error of farmers, in applying burned lime, instead of ground limestone on their land."

Too little attention has doubtless been paid to the nature and constitution of different soils—to the kinds of manure best adapted to their improvement, and to the crops which they will produce to the greatest advantage. It would be an important acquisition to agricultural knowledge, if some person qualified for the task, would furnish a series of essays, *or a more elaborate work*, which might be called *agricultural geology*. Such a work might embrace something like the following subjects:

1. A description of the rocky strata composing the surface of the globe.
2. The composition and qualities of the soils produced by the decomposition of those strata.
3. Alluvial soils, or those deposited from water, their composition and qualities.
4. Of the different kinds of manures and their adaptation to the several descriptions of soil. And,
5. The proper adaptation of crops, whether of grain or grass, to the several kinds of soils.

It is hoped that some of the readers of the Cabinet will follow up the suggestion here offered, at least by the communication of such facts in relation thereto as they may be in possession of.

New Garden, 9 mo. 28th, 1837.

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## Utility of Salt in Agriculture.

The following note on this subject is appended to "A letter to the Farmers and Graziers of Great Britain, on the advantage of using salt in the various branches of agriculture," published in England by a late eminent Chemist, SAMUEL PARKER, and republished in Philadelphia, in 1819, by Messrs. CAREY & SON, on the suggestion of the late JUDGE PETERS. As a new generation of farmers have appeared since that day, the editor thinks he will render the cause in which he is engaged a service, by its insertion in the Cabinet.

The utility of Salt for various agricultural purposes has long been known, and attended to in the United States.

1. As a manure it was early used for flax, as appears from some of Elliott's essays on husbandry, printed in Boston between 1745 and 1754: and Mr. Cadwalader Ford, in a paper on this subject addressed to the Massachusetts Agricultural Society, and published by that body,* bears testimony of its highly fertilizing effects on flax. The proportion which he advises to be used, is double the quantity of Salt to that of seed. He strewed the Salt at the time of sowing the seed. From three acres of flax salted he had 50 bushels of seed and also an excellent crop of flax.

The publication of Mr. Ford's paper by Mr. Carey, caused the experiment to be repeated by Mr. Henry Hendrickson, of Cecil county, Maryland. He states† that on a poor piece of land he sowed one peck of flax seed and one peck of Salt together, and that when the flax was about three inches high, he sowed another peck of Salt on it. He also sowed a piece of excellent land with flax, and although he had a good crop, yet the flax on the poor land "was a great deal better, and produced more seed than the flax on the rich land." A farmer in Delaware county, to whom I mentioned the fact of the utility of Salt as a manure to flax, told me

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* Carey's American Museum, vol. 1. p. 49.
† Do. Do. vol. 2, p. 176.

he had tried it, and that it was plainly seen to be of great benefit.

Mr. Deane* says that he found it, in 1786, to act as a beneficial manure to carrots, when placed "under the surface in the centres of the intervals between the rows, at some distance from the roots: that the Salt might have time to be dissolved before the fibrous roots should reach it." Upon onions and turneps it had no effect. The farmers on the brackish rivers on our coast, find that the salt grass growing on the water's edge, when ploughed in, acts as a very excellent manure for Indian corn; and on the Raritan particularly it is a general practice thus to employ it.†

2. As a condiment to cattle, the utility of Salt is universally known to the American farmers, who are constantly in the practice of giving a portion of Salt to their cattle weekly. They find that the appetite is not only thereby greatly promoted, their digestion strengthened, and of course their disposition to fatten increased; but that their health is preserved by its use. During the late war with England, when the prices offered for domestic manufactures rendered the multiplication of Merino and other sheep an object with the American farmers, they were in the habit of placing large lumps of hard Rock-Salt in various parts of pasture fields, for the sheep to lick at pleasure. It is rational to believe that the very marked superiority in the health of every species of American cattle over those of Europe, may be ascribed to the general and free use of Salt. Many give a portion of Salt daily to their horses, as a preservative against worms of all kinds, as well as to preserve their digestive powers.

3. The practice of salting hay has been generally adopted for 30 years or more in Pennsylvania.‡ Hay thus treated (and clover hay particularly) may be put up with much less drying than when Salt is not used. Many farmers are in the excellent practice of mixing straw with hay, (as regularly as the hurry of stowing away will admit,) and of sprinkling the whole with Salt, layer by layer. In this way both hay and straw are rendered more palatable to cattle. The quantity of fodder is moreover increased by this mixture of hay and straw. About one peck of Salt to the ton of hay is enough, but more will not be injurious.

4. Salt will even preserve fresh clover from rotting, although put up in stacks in time of rain. An extensive and bold experiment was made in this way by Mr. Luke Morris, of Philadelphia, at his farm in Gloucester county, New Jersey, in the rainy summer of 1804. About 22 tons in two stacks were thus perfectly cured, and eaten greedily during the winter by some thriving steers. The hay exaled a saccharine odour, and the leaves and blossoms adhered to the stalk firmly. He put rather more than a bushel of Salt to the ton of hay.

The beneficial effects of salt air and salt marsh upon horses is proved by the fact, of broken-winded horses being greatly relieved, and sometimes cured by spending a season on the island in the Delaware bay. Several decided cases of this nature have been communicated to me. James Mease.

Chestnut Street, August 10th, 1819.

* New England Farmer. Worcester, 1790. Art. Salt.

† On Salt as a manure see a pamphlet by Mr. Geo. Reed, of Virginia, 1809, and remarks on it by Judge Peters, in Mem. Philadelphia Soc. for promoting agriculture, vol 2, p. 173.

‡ The good effect of Salt on the health of cattle, and its use in curing hay were mentioned in the Philad. edition of the Dom. Encyel. Articles. "*cattle*" and "*hay*."

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For the Farmers' Cabinet.

## On the depth of Ploughing.

That ploughing deep is of the utmost importance to make land productive, no one will deny. Yet how deplorable is it, to see so many of our farmers, instead of *ploughing* their land, persist in the old and ruinous practice of merely *skinning* it. Soils of the best quality, may be very shortly impoverished by shallow ploughing: while on the other hand, those of an inferior quality, may be materially improved by judicious ploughing. Why, it may be asked, are swamps and bogs so inexhaustibly fertile after being drained? One simple reason is, because they are possessed of a soil of very considerable depth. Then why not plough deep, in order to increase the depth of the soil of upland. Lands which have been ploughed shallow, on receiving the first deep ploughing, will generally fail in some measure in producing a good crop, in consequenee of turning up the clay. This has disheartened some that have made trial of it, so as to abandon it immediately again. But the action of the sun and atmosphere on the upturned clay, will contribute greatly to its fertilization. This being ploughed down, and the former surface turned up again, with the addition of proper manures will give land a deep soil and render it fertile and productive.

But few persons are aware of the depth to which the fibrous roots of grass descend into the ground. It has been discovered with very few exceptions, that they reach to the bottom of soils however deep; consequently, plants growing in a deep soil will be much better protected against the effects of drought, than those growing in a shallow soil. I would suggest, therefore, that land in all ordinary cases, be ploughed not less than eight inches deep. Will it not be much better to suffer partially in one crop, and

thereby to have afterwards a manifold increase; than to be always toiling, with very imperfect returns for our labor.

For the sake of neatness in farming, and to prevent high ridges and deep furrows, I would recommend that the first three or four furrows at the commencement of lands, and at the finishing of them, and at the edges of fields, be somewhat shallower than the remainder of the field. A.

Chester county, Sept. 15th, 1837.

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For the Farmers' Cabinet.

**An Apple tree eaten at the root, by Worms.**

Mr. Editor.—An Apple tree in my garden has been this season, so roughly handled by worms, that I fear it cannot be saved; but as I have great fondness for it, and am anxious to preserve it if possible, I send you this account in hopes yourself or some reader of your valuable paper may be able to suggest a remedy.

The tree is a harvest apple, a prolific bearer, six years old, and is planted in a grass plot in the upper part of the garden. Until this season it has grown, flourished and produced remarkably well. Early in June last I remarked some signs of unhealthiness; the leaves at the extremities of the branches began to curl up, the green fruit dwindled and shrivelled and the larger part fell off. What remained was small and poor when ripe. As the summer advanced the curling of the leaves increased, many dropt off, and now it is almost stript of foliage.

I could not account for the sickness of my tree, but in hopes of relieving it, had the grass removed for some distance around, but with no benefit. It then occurred to me that the seat of disease might be in or about the roots, and such on examination was the fact. A few inches above ground were perforations in the trunk, circular, accurately drilled, resembling those made by the humble bee in old dry rails. These, on being opened with a sharp knife, appeared to extend downards underneath the bark. On removing the dirt and examining the tree, I found it at the surface of the ground and extending downward, literally alive with small white worms, about one inch in length. They had completely girdled it, having eaten in some places into the heart of the tree. I destroyed as many as possible and then covered the eaten portion with live ashes, pouring also some strong ley around. This must have killed the worms, but I am anxious to know whether any thing more can be done to save my tree, and shall be much indebted for any suggestions.

Is it common for apple trees to be infested by worms, and is there any *preventive?*

H.

Burlington, N. J., Sept. 26th, 1837.

For the Farmers' Cabinet.

## Cider.

Many persons, perhaps, are not aware of the efficacy of black mustard seed (*sinapsis nigra,*) in preventing the acetic fermentation of cider. Abont a half pint of the seed put into a barrel of cider, will preserve it as sweet, from the usual time of making cider, in autumn, till the following May, as the day it was put in. The mustard is of very easy culture; a few seeds scattered in some rich vacant spot, will ensure a successive crop—although the plant is an annual. The succeeding crops will be perpetuated by the seed which falls to the ground in autumn. But in order to secure the cider from any unpleasant flavor, it is highly important that the vessels be perfectly free from must. An effectual method of cleaning cider barrels is, by putting into each one about a quart of unslacked lime, after which, pour on about four or five gallons of boiling water. Cover the bung hole with a loose covering that some of the steam may escape, which will be generated in great quantities, to prevent the barrel from bursting. Shake it up several times and then rinse it with clean water. It will add also greatly to the quality of the cider, by being separated entirely from all the sediment. This may be done by filtering it through a hair sieve when running from the press, and then to rack it off when it has stood a sufficient length of time, to leave any that might remain, settle to the bottom. A.

Chester county, Oct. 6, 1837.

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For the Farmers' Cabinet.

The season is approaching when it is usual for farmers to put up their pork, for the ensuing year. Will some person, who is experienced in the preservation of pork, communicate, through the Cabinet, the best method of preserving pork to retain its sweetness and flavor, during the hot months in summer? A.

Chester county, 1837.

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For the Farmers' Cabinet.

Would it not be profitable, in the mode of farming practiced by the "Farmer of Pemberton, N. J." as described in the Cabinet, vol. 1st, No. 18, to raise in his wheat stubble, previous to planting it with corn, a crop of turneps. Will he try the experiment and communicate the result to the Cabinet.

A.

Chester county, Sept. 18th, 1837.

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The Farmer.—With no inheritance but health, with no riches but industry, and with no ambition but virtue, is the sole king among men, and the only man among kings.

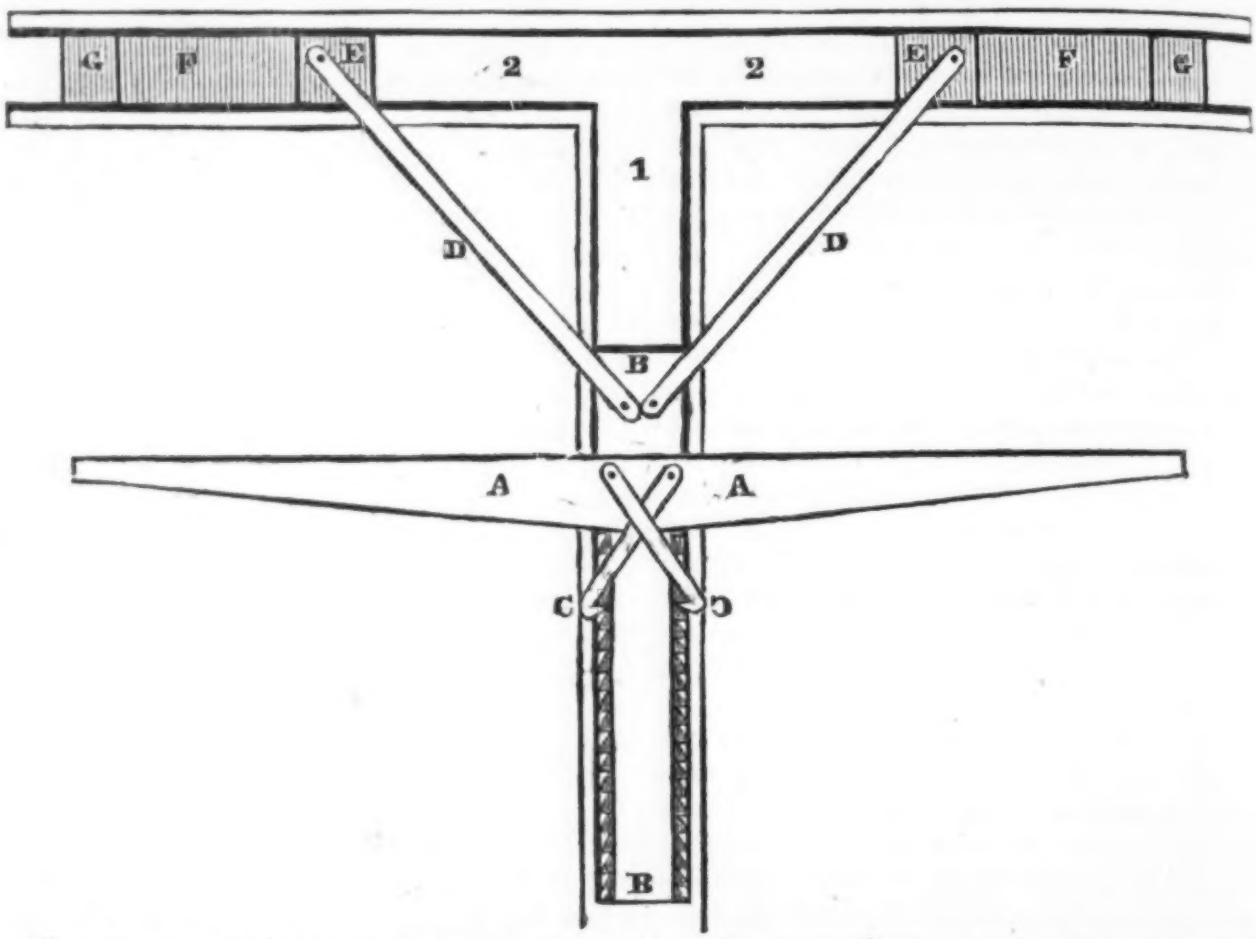
For the Farmers' Cabinet.

**The Compound Lever Press or Forcer.**

This machine may be used to great advantage where an increased pressure is required from a first mover that is uniform in its force. The following description will explain the principle upon which it acts, viz: Suppose a slide moving in a groove at right angles, to another groove in which two other slides move. Motion is conveyed to the two latter slides from the former one, by two connecting rods and four fulcrums, one fulcrum at each end of the respective rods.

A compound lever, acting with catches or hands in notches formed upon the first mentioned slide in groove No. 1, so as to change the relative position of the connecting rods from an angle of forty-five degrees, (or other convenient angle,) to a straight line, (or any degree approaching a straight line,) will show the manner which the other slides in groove No. 2 2, are acted upon so as to convey to them and through them to other objects, an *increased degree* of pressure or force, while the first mover is one of a *uniform degree* of force.

Fig. 15.




The compound lever may be moved by the power of men, horses, water, steam, wind, or any other convenient force.

The compound lever A A, moving on a fulcrum near the middle, moves the notched slide B B, by means of the catches or hands C C, this moves the connecting rods D D on the fulcrums at their ends, and forces the slides E E, farther asunder. The nearer the connecting rods D D approach a straight line, the greater will be the pressure of the slides E E upon the objects F F, confined between them and G G.

The fulcrums, hands and notches may be composed of iron, and the other parts of strong seasoned wood; of such dimensions as the force to be applied may require, or any other convenient substance.

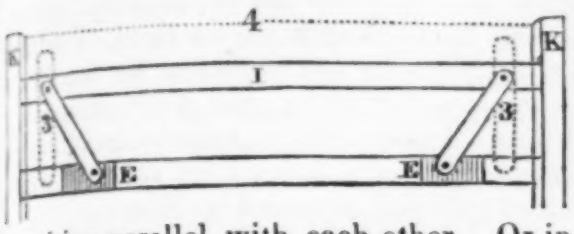
The particular manner in which this press may be used for various purposes, and the different powers which may be employed as first movers, will, probably, be given hereafter. P.

The *foregoing* description shows the pressure of the two slides E E in opposite directions; the *following* will explain how motion may be extended so as to press or force a body in a direction at right angles to the aforesaid motion; or two bodies in a circular direction, viz: Suppose two other connecting rods, moving on four fulcrums; one fulcrum at each end of the respective rods, two of them on the slides E E, and the other two on another slide which moves in grooves at right angles to that in which E E moves. Or instead of moving in grooves at right angles to the motion of E E, the fulcrums at the other ends of the connecting rods may be attached to two separate objects, each of which moves on another fulcrum, so that a circular motion may be given to those objects from the rectilinear motion of E E, communicated as aforesaid, from the compound lever A A. (Fig. 16.)

The aforesaid slides E E being forced farther asunder, as already described, until the

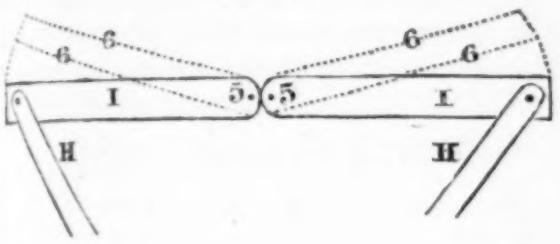
connecting rods H H are parallel with each other, as represented by the dotted lines 3 3; this brings the slide I, moving in the grooves K K, to the dotted line 4, with an increased force in proportion as the rods H H approach

Fig. 16.




a position parallel with each other. Or instead of the slide I moving as described above, it may be composed of two parts, as represented in the following cut, each part moving on a fulcrum at 5 5, until they are brought to the position as represented by the dotted lines 6 6 6 6, when acted on by the connecting rods H H, as before described, a section of each being represented, which is considered sufficient to show or explain the principle.

Fig. 17.




P.

September 30, 1837.

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From the Rev. Dr. Reed, Rector of the Episcopal Church, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

## Blight in Pear Trees.

The blight was destroying many of the pear trees in Dutchess county. Some ten or twelve years since, I lost one or two fine ones, and others began to be affected. In a ride into the interior of the county I observed in one neighborhood, the trees very flourishing, healthy and productive, when a few miles distant they were decaying. This neighborhood abounds in iron ore, which suggested to me the idea, that the mineral was necessary for the health of the pear. On returning home, I procured from a blacksmith shop, the cinders, and put a bushel of them around the root of each tree. I also hung some old iron hoops on the limbs. The trees have since grown luxuriantly and borne bountifully. Three years since I took possession of a house and lot where were three trees in a rough, scruby state; the same means have produced the same effect on them. A friend from the state of Rhode Island, while on a visit, remarked the flourishing state of my trees and said he had lost most of his. I related to him my experiment. He remarked that his own case corroborated the theory I had adopted, for, said he, "I have but one healthy tree left, and that stands near where an old blacksmith shop stood." I have, therefore, no doubt but that iron is a complete preventive for blight in pear trees. I tried the effect of the same on a plumb and a peach tree, and they both died in two years.

Another fact may be acceptable to your useful society.

In our county, gooseberries, after a few year's growth, have their fruit mouldy, small and useless. A gentleman in our neighborhood observing this and knowing that this fruit grows finely on the islands of the sea, tried the experiment of brine at the root, and found his fruit restored to its original size and entirely freed from mould. He puts a pint of strong brine at the root of each plant early in the spring. The brine should be put on without stirring the earth, so as to wet the roots, as in that case it kills the plant, but there is no danger, if poured on the earth undisturbed.

Two years since, finding my Madeira grapes mildew and blast, and knowing that they flourished on the sea-coast, I used brine around them, but have not made the experiment long enough to be positive as to the effect. They did remarkably well the last year, produced bountifully and were free from insects and mould.

Yours, with respect,

John Reed.

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Shady Grove, Franklin Co. Va., April 24, 1837.

This is a subject to which I have paid particular attention, and my first conviction, and in which I am more and more confirmed, was, that in striking at the root of the disease, you must not strike at the root of the tree, for the most superficial observer must have noticed that a branch will wither and die whilst the trunk and the other branches will remain in full health and vigor. Whether it is in a peculiarity of the air, or the effect of insects, I have never been able to determine.

My preventive is this. Take of copperas, two parts, and of brimstone, (flour of sulphur would be still better,) one part, well powdered and mixed; take a rag or piece of cloth, no matter what kind, about three or four inches wide, and as long as will reach three or four times around the branch to which it is to be applied. Wet the cloth and sprinkle on as much of the above composition as will stick, and wrap it moderately tight around a branch as high as convenient and confine it with a thread or twine, and so on with the other branches on the tree; there seldom being more than from three to five. In this way two hands can attend to from thirty to forty trees in a day; having

a small table which you can move from tree to tree and upon which you can the more conveniently prepare your applications. Every succeeding rain will dissolve a part of the copperas; this running down the branches, impregnated with the sulphur, seldom fails to produce a happy result. Whether it neutralizes the deleterious principle in the air, or owing to its noxious qualities to insects, I am not prepared to say.

I am, your most obedient,

John Cook.

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To the Editor:

Having seen in the Farmers' Cabinet of May 1st, 1837, a reward from the Horticultural Society of Pennsylvania, for the cure of blight in pear trees, I now offer a remedy, which, from a number of years experience, I believe to be effectual. Having planted several pear trees, and for nearly ten years they were not in a healthy state, one of them died during that time, and the others having dead twigs on the end of the limbs, did not bear. I removed the earth and grass sod from the root about two or three feet in diameter and three or four inches deep, and poured soap suds at the root nearly weekly for several years, when the ground is not frozen, which has brought the trees to a thrifty state of bearing. The above I hope will be tried by the members of the Horticultural Society, or any other persons, as I am under a strong conviction, that it will bring the trees to a healthy state.

Joseph Brinton.

Birmingham Township, Chester Co. August 31, 1837.

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**Green's Straw, Stalk, and Hay Cutter.**

In the first volume of the Farmers' Cabinet, No. 9, page 129, we published an article in commendation of Green's Straw Cutter. Since that time we have conversed with several gentlemen who have used this machine, and they all agree in recommending it, as fully answering the most favorable opinions they had formed of its utility. The following is the testimony of Richard Peters, Esq. of this city.

Philadelphia, Sept. 8th, 1837.

I purchased one of Green's Straw Cutters, in the autumn of 1836, and from that time until the present I have used it for cutting hay and straw at my farm. No hay was used for feeding my horses or cows, except that cut by the Straw Cutter; and during the winter of 1836–7, fifteen horses and three cows were fed exclusively on cut hay. Of these, four were carriage horses. The condition of all the stock, in the spring of the year was far better, than if they had been fed upon hay uncut, and better than any stock I have ever seen kept entirely on hay. I am satisfied there is an economy of at least one-third in feeding stock on cut hay, and they are much healthier than when fed in the usual mode. In less than 30 minutes by Green's Straw Cutter, hay was cut sufficient for the stock for twenty-four hours, and this without any fatigue. I have known and used many straw cutters, but have never been satisfied with any except that invented by Green.

Richard Peters.

The instrument with twelve knives cuts rather more than an inch long—price thirty-two dollars; that with eighteen knives cuts about three-quarters of an inch long and sells at forty dollars. ☞ Orders addressed to Mr. I. I. Hitchcock, No 5 South Fifth street, will meet with prompt attention.

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A Concise Treatise on the Growing and Propagating of Fruit Trees, Shrubs and Vines. Founded on the Theories of approved Authors, tested by several years practice, and improved by practical experiments.

## Fruit and Fruit Trees.

NO. II.

WHIP GRAFTING.

This method is particularly calculated for nurseries, and is most expeditious and advantageous on all kinds of young trees, (except the peach, apricot and nectarine, on which the budding may be considered *at all times*, preferable) and is particularly adapted to the cherry and plum, and all such as do not split well. It may be performed near the ground, or at the height of five or six feet, near where you intend to form the top, or in limbs from the thickness of a pipe-stem to about three-fourths of an inch, and too small to cleft graft; and the top of young trees having such limbs, may have their top changed by this method, as large trees by cleft grafting; and if the tree have some large limbs to cleft graft, but not many, it may be partly cleft and partly whip grafted. The manner is this: provide yourself with the composition before mentioned, soft woollen yarn, and a sharp pen-knife; begin the work by cutting off the head of the stock, at some smooth part, by one clean slanting cut upwards, so as to form a slope on one side about an inch and a half or two inches in length, and make a small slit from near the middle downwards, to receive the tongue of the scion; then prepare the scion, by cutting it with three or four buds, preferring the lower or thick part, and cutting the lower

end on one side also in a sloping manner, the length of and to fit the slope of the stock, as if cut from the same place, that the rinds of both may join as nearly as possible, in every part; then make a slit upwards in the slope of the scion, so as to form a sort of tongue, to fit that made in the slope of the stock, which insert therein, so that the rinds of both may join together, or on one side, if the stock is larger than the graft; then bind the parts together with the woollen yarn, bringing it round the stock and graft moderately tight, and fastened accordingly; make a plaster of the composition between your finger and thumb, and wrap it round the stock and graft over the ligature, squeeze it in your hand, so as to make it snug and tight, to keep the sap and exclude the rain and air, particularly at the ends. When the buds on the grafts have grown four or five inches, which will be about the middle of June or earlier or later, according to the season, the ligature becomes too tight, and will endanger the grafts; place the point of the knife on the upper side of the bandage or plaster, press it down through the composition and threads so as to cut them all in two, and take off the bandage and plaster entire. If the stock is large, and the graft is matched and united only on one side, leaving the other side exposed, put the plaster taken off, or a little composition over the exposed part.

### ROOT GRAFTING.

This is done by whip grafting upon your seedling trees of the size of a quarter to an eighth of an inch, taken up, whip grafted at the root, and re-planted, and is practised in nurseries for want of better stocks. It may also be done upon pieces of roots of about ½ of an inch in diameter and less, either by letting the roots remain or separating, and after grafting replanting them. No composition is required; the yarn by which the graft roots are tied together will rot off and make room for growth. Large roots may be cleft grafted, and then the composition is to be used.

### CROWN GRAFTING,

May be practised upon such stocks as have become too large and stubborn to cleave, and then two, four, or more grafts inserted round the crown of the stock in a circular order, introduced between the bark and wood; this cannot be done until the bark peels freely—the grafts are subject to be blown off. The stock will be a long time in healing over, and is subject to decay.

### SIDE GRAFTING.

This is done by inserting the grafts into the sides of the branches without heading them down. To fill up any vacancy on trees thus: prepare the scion as for whip grafting, by sloping and tongueing it; then cut a chip from the place where the graft is to be inserted, of the same size with the slope on the graft in such manner that the wood on the slope of the graft will cover and fit the wood laid bare by taking out the chip; cut a notch or tongue on the stock to fit that on the graft, and match them firmly together; cover the parts matched with composition when necessary, first binding them together as in whip grafting. Nothing further is necessary, except pruning, as directed in cleft grafting.

### BUDDING OR INOCULATING.

Budding should be performed on stocks of thrifty, vigorous growth. They may be raised by budding young trees about half an inch in diameter, near the ground. Buds inserted in this manner, will grow five and six feet and upwards in one season, and will form straight and smooth stems and fine trees. Budding may also be performed in the branches of young trees in the top, and leading, and side shoots; but if in the season of grafting, and you have plenty of scions, the latter is preferable. Roses, Lilacs, &c. &c. may be budded at any time after they are full grown, and as many kinds as there are of either, may be put on the same stock together, and form a pleasing variety.

### TIME AND SEASON FOR BUDDING.

The seasons proper for budding are two. 1st, the spring, beginning after the sap flows and the bark peels freely, until the first of June, with buds cut from scions preserved as for grafting, and before used buried or immersed in water, or fresh from the tree; or 2nd, (and which is the proper season) in the summer and fall, with fair, full grown buds, of the same season, taken from well ripened shoots, fresh from the tree, or kept with care only for a short time; otherwise it will be labor lost. In the summer or fall it should not be done so early as to cause the bud to shoot the same season; the short time they will have to grow before cold weather, will not admit of their becoming ripened and prepared to withstand the winter frosts. On the other hand, it should not be put off too late and be performed, whilst the sap flows and the bark peels freely, and before the trees or shoots become bound, which time varies in the different kinds of trees, and is a little sooner or later according to the season, whether it be wet or dry, but generally as follows: The cherry, plum, and pear tree become bark-bound by the 1st of August, and should, together with the apricot, if worked on plum stocks, be inoculated the second or third week in July. The apple trees become bark-bound about the first of

September and should be budded in August. The peach, apricot and nectarine about the 20th of September, and should be budded between the 1st and middle of that month. It may, however, be done later, and if occasion require, after the bark begins to fasten, by rubbing it with a smooth knife handle or other substance, and thereby loosening it, but this is not safe. The shoots intended to be taken are to be selected in the same manner as for grafting, and should be as fresh from the tree as circumstances will admit, and kept in the shade and moist, not saturated, and the work performed in cloudy weather, in the shade, or in the morning or evening.

MANNER OF BUDDING AND HEADING THE STOCKS.

This may be done by making incisions in the stock like a cross † or a T, then raising the corners and inserting the bud; the following is the most simple, easy, and successful method: Having provided suitable shoots from which to take the buds, cut off the leaves a little above the buds; furnish yourself with some soft woollen yarn and a sharp penknife; fix upon a smooth part of the side of the stock; make a horizontal cut across the bark to the wood; then from this cut make two slits downwards, parallel to and apart from each other, the width of the bud with its bark when severed from its shoot; then with the point of your knife raise the bark next the horizontal cut between the slits, and peel it down their whole length, clear from the wood; make a slit in the bark peeled down. Next prepare the bud; place your knife about half an inch above the bud, and cut down through the bark into the surface of the wood, and so along under the bud, and out about half an inch below it, taking out as little of the wood as may be; then turn down the loosened bark, insert the bud over the wood so as to cover it; then close the bark over it, leaving the bud to project up through the middle slit; break off about twenty inches of the yarn and place the middle over the bark, and just below the bud, binding it round the stock to the back side of it, then cross it and wind the thread around the stock over the bark, above and below the bud, not over it until it is all closed up, not so tight as to prevent the sap from communicating; then tie a knot and the work is completed.

If it be spring and the buds taken from scions preserved as for grafting, insert the bud with the wood; in summer or fall the wood may be separated from the bud. But if on separating the wood there appears a small hole on the under sipe, opposite the bud, the bud will not sprout and is rendered useless. It is therefore preferable to insert the buds on single stems and upright branches on the north or shady side of the stocks, and on the branches; insert them on the upper side to shed water and make a perfect growth. In about three weeks the bandage might be taken off by cutting across the yarn, on the side of the stock opposite the bud. When the buds begin to shoot, the stock must be headed down, in spring budding, at or shortly after the time the bandages are taken off; for autumn budding, not until the next spring. This is performed by cutting off the stock about four inches above the bud, sloping upwards from the side opposite the bud. After the bud has grown five or six inches, tie a string around the stock a little above the shoot, and bring the ends on the outside and there tie them together, so as to keep the shoot in a perpendicular position, and brace it against the wind, which may otherwise blow it off. The shoots which put out from the stock should be cut or rubbed off occasionally.

After one season's growth of the bud, the stump left above the bud should be cut down close to the shoot and sloping from it, and a little composition put over it.

To be concluded.

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## An Essay on Indian Corn,

*Delivered by Peter A. Browne, Esq., L. L. D., before the Cabinet of Natural Science of Chester county, Pa.*

Continued.

4. Was the Indian corn known to the aborigines of any portion of this hemisphere, and of those portions in the order in which they were first visited?

Hispaniola was one of the first of the West India Islands known to Europeans: it was discovered in 1492, by the Spaniards, before they had seen the continent; and therefore I shall commence with the Spanish West Indies. That the Indian corn was found in these Islands is proved by the following:

The Spanish word for *Corn*, used as a generic term, and also for "wheat," according to Delphini, is "*trigo*," which is derived from the Latin "*triticum*."* But the Spaniards use the word "mays," which they define to be "*West India corn*."

Again. In Jos: de Acosti's Natural History of the West Indies, lib. 4, ch. 16, p. 236, speaking of the mays, he calls it "Indian wheat, to make bread of. He says that it was the only grain FOUND in the West Indies by the Europeans:—that it grows upon a long reed with large grains, and sometimes

* Which is rendered, "wheat" and "barley."

two ears on a reed, on one of which seven hundred grains have been told:—that they sow it grain by grain and not scattering, as is done with wheat; and it requires a hot and moist soil. There are two sorts of it, (says our author,) one large and substantial, the other small and dry, which they call 'marochc.' The leaves of it and also the reed are very good food for cattle, green; and dry, it serves as well as straw. The grain is better for beasts than barley, but they must drink *before* they eat it; for if they drink *after* it, it swells and gives them pain. The Indians eat it hot, boiled, and call it '*mote*,' and sometimes toasted. There is a sort of it large and round, which the Spaniards eat toasted; they also grind it and make cakes, which they eat hot; and these, in some places, they call '*arepas*.' They also make bread, to keep, and sweet cakes of it. The Indians make drink with barley; this they call in Peru '*azua*,' and in most other parts '*chica*;' it was very strong. They have also a way of extracting *oil* from it which is good, and serves instead of butter and olive oil." This writer spent nearly his whole life, which was a long one, in America.

The South American continent was discovered in 1498, and in Robertson's History of America, speaking of the agriculture of the aborigines of that country, it is said, "The chief thing raised was *maize*, known in Europe by the name of 'Turkey' or '*Indian*' wheat, a grain extremely prolific, of simple culture, agreeable to the taste, and affording a strong healthy nourishment."

The Mexicans held in great veneration a goddess who presided over the *maize*, whom they called "To-na-cay-ohu-a," which means "She who feeds us." To her they consecrated the first fruits of the earth, as the Heathens did to Ceres.

The first account we have of any *French* navigator being on the American coast was in 1504. This nation endeavoured to effect the planting of a colony in Canada in 1534, but did not entirely succeed till 1603. M. Charlevoix, who wrote the earliest and most authentic history of Canada, which was then called "*La Nouvelle France*," in describing the culture of the earth there in 1721 says, "Outre que le grain, dont ce peuple font usage, sont des grain d' été, on pretend, que la nature du Terrior de ce pays-ci, ne permet pas d' y rien semer avant l' Hyver. Mais je crois que le veritable raison pourquoi les grains ne pousseroient pas, si en les semoit en automne, c'est qu'ils se gateroient pendant l' Hyver, ou qu'ils pourriroient á la fonte des neiges. Il se peut fair aussi, et c'est l' opinion de plusieurs, que le froment, qu'on recueille en Canada, quoiqu' originairement venu de France, ait contracte avec le tems la propriete des grain d'ete qui n'ent pas assez de force pour poussea plusieur fois, come il arrive á ceaux, que nous semons en September & en October.

"Les feves, (ou plutôt) les feveroles se sement avec le *maize*, dont la tige leur sert d'appui: Je crois avoir oui dire que c'est de nouis, que le sauvages ont reçu ce *legume*, dont ils font grand cas & qui ne differe effectivement en rien de notre."

This author is so anxious to assert that it was from the French that the Canadians received the feveroles, and claims nothing of the kind for the maize; the inference is irresistible that the latter was found in this country.

In his 3d v. p. 163, in giving an account of the plants belonging to Canada ('particulière au pays') he has enumerated "Le maiz ou Bled de Torquie.*

M. Charlevoix tells us also that in 1564, when M. Landonnie arrived in Florida, the natives presented him and his party with *Indian corn meal*. "Des farines de maiz."

When the first effectual settlement was made in Virginia, in 1607, that country from the sea coast to the mountains and between the Potomac and the James Rivers, was occupied by upwards of 40 tribes of Indians, of which the most powerful were the Powhatans, the Mannahocs, and Manacans; and we have the the authority of Mr. Jefferson for asserting, that when the English first visited them, they found them using the Indian corn. Whether it was of *spontaneous* growth or was by cultivation, is not stated; but most probably (says Mr. J.) it was a *native* of a more southern climate, and was handed along the continent from one nation to another of the savages.—*Notes on Virginia.*

As has been said before, the French settled in Canada in 1603, and six years afterwards the Dutch possessed themselves of New York. The British colonists did not arrive at New England until the year 1620. At the time above mentioned, these Europeans found five Indian nations, viz. the Mohawks, the Oneodoes, the Oriondagoes, the Cayugas and the Sennekas, joined together by a league and confederacy, possessing an immense district of the American continent, reaching from the Atlantic to the Lakes. The Aridondacks, another tribe, lived in Canada. The 'Five Nations' affected to think themselves a superior race to all the rest of mankind;—they called themselves '*Onguehonwe*,' which means 'men surpassing all others.' The white men were anxious to be made acquainted with the history of these nations previously to the Europeans coming among them; which having been

* Letter X. written in April, 1821.

related by the chiefs, and preserved [Colden's History of the Five Nations, London 1747,] will shed some light upon the question under discussion. It commences in this way: "The Aridondacks formerly lived 300 miles above Trois Riviere, where now the Utawawas are situated; at that time they employed themselves wholly in hunting, and the Five Nations made *planting of corn* their business. By these means they became mutually useful to each other by exchanging *corn* for venison. But a war broke out between the Five Nations and the Aridondacks, in which the former were the conquerors. *Soon after this*, (says this tradition,) the French arrived at Canada and settled at Quebec."

Carver, the celebrated English traveler, who traversed upwards of 5,000 miles of the interior of North America, tells us that the Ottagaumies, the Saukees, and all the eastern nations, were found *growing Indian corn.*

But Dr. Benj. Smith Barton places the Lenni Lennape at the head of the column of North American Indians, and they are generally acknowledged to have been of more ancient establishment in the country than many others.* Their tradition was, that they were formerly a very powerful people, inhabiting the country to a great distance westward and along the sea shore east and south. The great extent to which their language was spoken, gives countenance to this tradition. Besides this the tribes along the Mississippi called the Delawares their 'grand-father.' Of all the Indian nations which formerly inhabited this country from Massachusetts to the Mississippi, and between the Ohio River and the Canada Lakes, none but the five nations and the Delawares had a right to call a general council. It also appears from an inspection of Indian vocabularies that the language of the Lenni Lennape could be traced beyond the Canadian Lakes, on the North and in the South, among the Pampticoughs, who formerly inhabited North Carolina and Sawaranoo, who lived in Georgia, and even to South America, [Barton,] Massachusetts, Connecticut, Monongahela, Alleghany, Muskingum, Savannah, Mississippi, and Missouri, are all derived from the language of the Lenni Lennapes.

Now every thing which these Indians considered as *original* or *native* among them, they distinguished with the word "Lenni" placed before it; the oak and hickory they called "Lenni Hittuck," the original or *native* trees; the chub fish was original and common in all their rivers and brooks; they called it "*Lennameek*," the *original* fish: they called themselves the Lenni Lennape, the *original* people; and the *Indian* corn they called "Lenchasquem," "the ORIGINAL GRAIN," thereby declaring their opinion that it was a *native* of their country.

To be continued.

* The British called them "the Delawares," and the French, "Les Loups."

### Preventive of the Wheat Worm.

A correspondent of the Maine Farmer says, "Mr. Herrick, of Poland, informed me that a year ago, last spring, he had two and a half bushels of wheat sown on one piece—ground all alike—and on one bushel of sowing he sowed two bushels of good strong ashes. The ashes were sown in the time of a heavy dew, and when the wheat was just coming into blow, and sowed as much as he could on the wheat heads. The result was, that from one bushel of seed he got fifteen bushels of wheat entirely free from the weevil, and from the remainder one and a half bushels, he got only five bushels of poor blighted wheat, almost wholly destroyed by the weevil or worm. The whole was sown at one time, ground manured alike, and the only difference in the management, was the addition of the two bushels of ashes."

### Winter Products of a Devon Cow.

Abraham P. Holdrich, Esq., of Spencertown, had an accurate memorandum kept of the butter made from a Devonshire cow, which calved late in autumn. The result was, that from the 10th Dec. to the 10th Jan., including both days, there was made from her milk 56 lbs. of well-worked butter, nearly equal to two lbs. per day. The cow was fed with roots, hay, and buckwheat bran. Estimating it at 20 cts. per lb. the butter made during the month, and in the depth of winter, was worth $11 20; and if we consider this the average product of 8 months in the year, the aggregate amount for that period would be $89 60. We need no better illustration than this, of the importance of keeping good animals, and of keeping them well.

### To preserve Pumpkins through the winter and spring.

When taken from the vine open them, and throw away the soft contents which are found in their inside. Then cut them into small pieces, and dry them in the sun, or in an oven. Preserve them in a dry place. They may be either pounded or boiled before they are used. Prepared in this manner, they make a cheap and excellent food for cattle, horses and hogs. Many thousand pounds might be saved in grain to our farmers, and to our country, by the general use of this wholesome and nourishing food for domestic animals. They afford more nourishment than the potatoe or scarcity-root; they are cultivated with less trouble, and yield a much larger increase from the same labor.—*Southern Planter.*

Fig. 18.

Fig. 19.

The design of this contrivance is to prevent accidents from mischievous bulls.

Fig. 18, in the above cut, represents a *front* view of the apparatus as fixed to the animal's head. It consists of a straight piece of wood or iron, (the latter is the preferable material) stretching from horn to horn, perforated at each end so as to pass over the tips, and fastened on them by the usual metal nut. On the centre of this is rivetted a *curved bar of iron*, bending upwards, which moves easily on the rivet, and has holes at each end, containing the upper round link of a chain. These chains again unite in a strong iron ring, which opens by a hinge and screw, and passes through the bull's nose.

The effect of this contrivance is as follows: Any person seeing a vicious animal approach may easily avoid him; but if the bull should make a push *forward*, the curved iron bar will prevent any bad consequences from tossing; and if the beast move in the smallest degree *either to the right or to the left*, the bar, communicating by the chain with the ring upon his nose, will immediately bring him to check. This *lateral* operation is delineated in Fig. 19.

An additional advantage resulting from the use of this invention is, that a beast may be led in any direction, with the smallest power.

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## Root Crops.

Root crops especially, should be placed beyond the danger of injury; it is better to take some additional pains than to lose one half the amount by carelessness. Potatoes should be packed away in such a manner that they may keep well, even if the winter should be much severer than common.—Their preservation depends on securing them from *frost* and from *moisture*. Hence these requisites should be particularly observed, both in placing them in cellars, and in heaps in the open field.

The best method of preserving ruta baga in open ground, is the following. They are to be placed in long heaps, three or four feet wide, and of any desirable length, in a roof-like form and terminating in a ridge at the top. They are then covered, first with straw, and afterwards with earth. They need not be covered to so great a depth as potatoes require, as they are not so easily injured by frost. But as they are liable without precaution to ferment and rot, in large heaps, holes should be made with a crow-bar through the earth into the heap, at intervals of a few feet, to suffer the warm air which may be caused, to escape; and these holes may be partially closed by straw. Where the soil is such that there is no danger from moisture, these heaps may be placed in broad trenches made for the purpose.

Mangel Wurtzel require nearly the same treatment in preserving as the potato—they are more easily injured by frost than ruta baga, and should consequently be sooner secured. As a general rule, they should never be left out later than the latter part of this month.

A dry, warm cellar, which will admit of some circulation of air, is the most convenient place of keeping both mangel wurtzel and ruta baga when they are to be fed out daily during winter.

### PLOUGHING.

All ground intended for spring crops next season, should be ploughed before winter without fail. Teams are strong in autumn, the weather is cool and favorable for their labor, and the operation greatly assists in destroying grass and weeds. The diminished labor in hoeing next season, from this alone, will in many cases compensate for all the expense.

From the Baltimore Farmer and Gardener.

## Time of Sowing Wheat.

I have noticed of late, that several writers have advanced the opinion that *wheat*, if sown late, will stand a better chance to avoid the ravages of the fly, than if it be sown early. One of these writers intimates that between the 1st and 10th of November, is the proper time. I have sowed my wheat late and early, and although I have no data to refer to, the impression is very strong upon my mind, that the former was more generally exempt from this insect. Upon one occasion, I think it was in 1831, I did not get my last field of wheat in until the 2d of December, and that my neighbors all prognosticated, kind souls, that the grain would rot in the ground and never come up. It did come up, though not until the next spring, generally, and it was observed on all hands, that it was the best field of wheat on my farm, although the rest (three in number,) had been manured and ploughed just as well as it was. The field consisted of 20 acres and yielded 456 bushels of good merchantable wheat. It was of the red bearded variety. The field had been, the two preceding years, in clover, and prior to ploughing it in, I put on 500 bushels of lime, 25 bushels to the acre. In turning down the sod, I was very careful, employing a hand to follow the ploughman and turn that did not lay flat with the sod completely under. I made the ploughman plough deep, say from 7 to 8 inches—the surface being harrowed, furrow-wise, I spread over the whole field about 1000 bushels of ashes, and 206 single horse cart loads of well rotted manure, mixed with about one-third its quantity of vegetable mould from the woods—then sowed my seed, and instead of harrowing it in, passed the cultivator over it. In this state it remained until the frost was out of the ground in the ensuing spring, when to prevent the ill effect of frost-spewing, I passed the roller over it.

I have intimated, that I gave this field a liming at that time, 1831, of 25 bushels to the acre, and I can now add, to this day its benefits are as obvious as the noon-day sun, and I doubt not that it is more productive than it was when cleared: how long it may remain so, is to be tested by time, but by following up the good system of rotation of crops, and ploughing in a green crop of clover, rye, oats, or buckwheat occasionally, I think it will last for at least ten years in good heart.

My neighbors lime much heavier than I do, some four-fold, others six-fold, but I doubt the necessity, and if by putting on 25 bushels to the acre, we can secure as great a benefit for a reasonable number of years as when we put on a much larger quantity, why should we incur the additional expense?

A Pennsylvania Farmer.

## Bees.

We have often marvelled that our farmers do not pay more attention to the rearing of bees. The produce of these industrious insects is far more profitable than the generality of persons may be inclined to imagine, and and the little time which it is necessary to bestow upon them is seldom uselessly employed. They will always thrive in the vicinity of fields of clover and flower gardens, and, while the product of their labors will furnish no inconsiderable profit in a pecuniary point of view, the example of industry which will thus be constantly placed before the younger portion of the community, may have the most beneficial effects. We lately met with the following anecdote, showing some of the advantages which may arise from keeping bees.

"A French Bishop being about to make his annual visitation, sent word to a certain curate, whose ecclesiastical benefice was extremely trifling, that he meant to dine with him; at the same time requesting that he would not put himself to any extraordinary expense. The curate promised to attend to the Bishop's suggestion, but did not keep his word, for he provided a sumptuous entertainment. His Lordship was much surprised, but could not help censuring the conduct of the curate, observing that it was highly ridiculous in a man whose circumstances were so narrow, to launch out into so much expense, nay, almost to dissipate his entire income in a single day. "Do not be uneasy on that score, my lord," replied the curate, for I assure you that what you now see is not the produce of my curacy, which I bestow exclusively upon the poor." "Then you have a patrimony, sir!" said the Bishop. "No, sir." "You speak in riddles, how do you then do?" "My lord, I have a convent of young damsels here who do not let me want for any thing." "How! you have a convent! I did not know there was one in this neighborhood. This is all very strange, very unaccountable, Mr. Curate." "You are jocular, my lord." "But come, sir, I entreat that you solve the enigma; I would fain see the convent." "So you shall, my lord, after dinner; and I promise you that your lordship shall be satisfied with my conduct."

Accordingly, when dinner was over the curate conducted the prelate to a large enclosure, entirely occupied by beehives, and pointing to the latter, he oberved, "This, my lord, is the convent which gave us our dinner; it brings me in about 1800 livres per annum, upon which I live very comfortably, and with which I contrive to entertain my guests genteelly." The surprise and satisfaction of the Bishop at this discovery may easily be conceived. The sequel of the story informs us

that afterwards whenever a curate made application to his lordship for an improved living, he would only reply, "*Keep bees, keep bees!*"

## Keeping Hens---Eggs.

Eaton, Massachusetts, July, 1837.

I send you an account of my success last year in keeping hens, and will thank you to publish it to let the people know how many eggs a hen lays in a year. I have heard much speculation on the subject, and last year I kept an account, which is as follows:

On the first of January, 1836, I had ten hens and one good crower. In the spring I suffered three of them to go through the process of incubation, which left me seven to make my experiment upon. The three which raised chickens, gave me twenty-four in number, which I sold for a shilling each when they were the size of quails. The sooner you sell chickens the better, for they will not bring more than three or four cents more when full grown than when half grown.

When the year was out on the first of last January, I looked over my account and found my seven hens had given me ninety six dozen of eggs, which were sold for $15 91. What we had used in the family made the whole quantity one hundred dozen. The lowest price I sold any for was 13 cents per dozen—the highest 25 cents I have asked many farmers to guess the number, but they always came short of it.

They ask me what I give them to make them so prolific; I inquire how they treat theirs, what they give them to eat, and where they rest at night. They tell me that they let them rest in barns or on apple trees—not giving them much except what they can pick up around the house and barn. They think warm dough will freeze in their crops and kill them in cold weather.

Now I'll tell you how I keep hens. I cause a good house to be made for them in the south side of a hill, and stone it up so warm that an egg will scarcely ever get frozen. During half the time in winter I give the hens boiled potatoes and bran or meal, mixed together with warm water. I never lost any hens in consequence of this dough freezing in their crops; if they have a good warm house to set in, dough will not hurt them any more than warm cakes will kill a man. For the remainder of the time, I give them oats instead of corn. I have bought oats in Boston for seventy cents a bushel, while corn was, at the same time, one dollar and ten cents, I tried the hens first on the oats and then on the corn. Before feeding the hens, I would let the oats soak in warm water for three or four hours, till they got well swelled, and in this way I found that a bushel of oats would go as far as a bushel and a half of corn; thus in using oats instead of corn I saved ninety-five cents to every bushel consumed.

Hens will dust themselves every day when they can get dry dirt. In the winter, when they cannot, I place a large box of coal-pit dust in their house and keep it dry so that it cannot freeze; this answers every purpose.

Hens should never be kept near cattle, for their vermin will escape to the cattle and prevent them from growing fat.

I preserve all the pieces of white earthern ware that I can find, and when the ground is covered with snow, I pulverize it and give it to them. I find by experience they will eat it in preference to corn. Water is always placed within their reach.

Last year, according to the best of my calculations, the cost of keeping my ten hens was $9. I sold eggs to the amount of $15 91, and chickens to that of $4—leaving a net profit of one season of $19 91. Besides this, eleven dozen of eggs worth a shiling a dozen, were used in the family.

## Churning.

There is something considerably difficult in making butter from cream, owing perhaps to causes not exactly understood; and every dairy woman knows that causes occur in which the manufacture of a good article is impracticable. A friend assures us that in ordinary cases the difficulty is at once removed, and butter of a good quality procured by the addition of a little *sal eratus* to the cream. We have since tried it when cream proved refractory, and found it to succeed admirably. A spoon full of sal eratus, pulverized, is a sufficient dose for two gallons of cream. After the cream had been churned a proper time, if no sign of butter appear, sprinkle the powdered sal eratus over the surface, half at a time, as it is possible no more than half may be required. After churning a few minutes longer, if necessary, add the remainder. The philosophy of the matter, we take to be this—the alkali of the sal eratus neutralizes the superabundant acid of the cream and thus produces butter.

## Green Corn.

Those who are fond of green corn and desire to have it in fine order, in the winter, should improve the present opportunity to pack it down in clean, tight casks, with a pickle sufficiently strong to preserve cucumbers. It should be put down in the husks and kept excluded from the air by the brine, so as to prevent fermentation, or decomposition. Corn thus prepared, it is said, will keep for any length of time, and will be sufficiently fresh for the table, when boiled.

| ARTICLES. | Philadelphia, Oct. 14. | Baltimore. Oct. 10. | New York, Oct. 10. | Boston, Oct. 11. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Beans, white, per bush. | $1 37–1 62½ | 1 25—0 00 | 0 00—0 00 | 1 37—1 75 |
| Beef, mess, new, per bbl. | 14 00–15 00 | 13 50–14 20 | 13 50–14 50 | 13 00–14 00 |
| Bacon, western, per lb. | 8— 9½ | 7— 9 | 8— 10 | ..... |
| Butter, extra, per tub. | 12— 13 | 16— 20 | 18— 20 | 18— 23 |
| Butter, fresh, per lb. (market,) | 18— 25 | 20— 25 | 20— 25 | 24— 27 |
| Hams, per lb. | 13— 00 | 12— 13 | 12— 14 | 14— 15 |
| Hog's Lard, per lb. | 7½— 8½ | 9— 10 | 8— 10 | 8— 9 |
| Cheese, American, per lb. | 9— 10½ | 9— 11 | 9— 11 | 8— 9 |
| Beeswax, yellow, per lb. | 26— 27 | 23— 25 | 24— 27 | 26— 32 |
| Beeswax, white, | ..... | 38— 40 | 38— 40 | 38— 40 |
| Bristles, American, | 42— 65 | 25— 65 | 25— 65 | ..... |
| Flax, American, | 8½— 9 | 9— 10 | 9— | 9— 12 |
| Flour, best, per bbl. | 8 00—9 00 | 8 00—8 25 | 7 50—9 00 | 9 00—9 25 |
| Grain—Wheat, per bush. Penna. | 1 60—1 75 | 1 80—1 85 | 1 70—1 80 | ..... |
| do. Maryland, | 1 60—1 75 | 1 25—1 65 | 1 60—1 75 | ..... |
| Rye, per bushel, | 95—1 00 | 82— 85 | —0 75 | 0 00—0 00 |
| Corn, do. | 98—1 00 | 96— 98 | 1 00—1 80 | 1 00—1 02 |
| Oats, do. | 40— 43 | 30— 32 | 35— 45 | 47— 50 |
| Barley, do. Penn. | ..... | ..... | 0 00— | 0 70—0 75 |
| Peas do. | 1 00—1 25 | 00—0 00 | — 8 | ..... |
| Hay, Timothy, per 100 lbs. | 0 00—0 00 | 12 00 pr. ton. | ..... | 20 00 pr ton. |
| Meadow Grass, | 70— 80 | ..... | ..... | ..... |
| Hemp, American dry rot, ton, | 175 00– | 6— 8 | 130 —140 | ..... |
| Hops, first sort, 1836, lb. | 12— 15 | — 9 | 8— 10 | 7— 8 |
| Plaster Paris, per ton, | 3 25—0 00 | 0 00—3 50 | 2 50— | 2 50—2 62 |
| Seeds—Cloverseed, per bushel, | 6 00—6 75 | 6 00—6 50 | ..... | ..... |
| Flaxseed, rough, do. | 1 30—1 37 | 1 37—1 50 | ..... | ..... |
| Timothy, | 2 00—3 25 | 3 25—4 00 | ..... | 2 87—3 00 |
| Tallow, per lb. | 00— 00 | — 10 | 9— 10 | 00— 00 |
| Wool—Saxony, fleece, per lb. | 00— 00 | 40— 50 | 75— 80 | ..... |
| Merino, | 00— 00 | 35— 40 | 50— 68 | ..... |
| 1-4 and common, | 00— 00 | 25— 30 | 40— 50 | ..... |

Gentlemen whose subscriptions commenced with the thirteenth number, or second half year of the first volume of the Cabinet, and who may wish to complete their sets by obtaining the first twelve numbers, should make early application for the same. All letters on this subject, must be post paid. ☞ Post Masters are hereby authorized and respectfully requested to forward us the names of persons who may wish to *continue* the work, as well as the names of *new* subscribers; and after retaining twenty per cent. commission, transmit us the balance of any moneys they may have received:—And any gentleman may constitute himself a special agent, by remitting us five dollars, free of postage, for which sum, we will forward seven copies according to his direction.

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